

Review

Jessica Kukucka, Tessa Wyllie, Justin Read, Lauren Mahoney and Cenk Suphioglu*

Human neuronal cells: epigenetic aspects

Abstract: Histone acetyltransferases (HATs) and histone deacetylases (HDACs) promote histone posttranslational modifications, which lead to an epigenetic alteration in gene expression. Aberrant regulation of HATs and HDACs in neuronal cells results in pathological consequences such as neurodegeneration. Alzheimer's disease is the most common neurodegenerative disease of the brain, which has devastating effects on patients and loved ones. The use of pan-HDAC inhibitors has shown great therapeutic promise in ameliorating neurodegenerative ailments. Recent evidence has emerged suggesting that certain deacetylases mediate neurotoxicity, whereas others provide neuroprotection. Therefore, the inhibition of certain isoforms to alleviate neurodegenerative manifestations has now become the focus of studies. In this review, we aimed to discuss and summarize some of the most recent and promising findings of HAT and HDAC functions in neurodegenerative diseases.

Keywords: acetylation; Alzheimer's disease; deacetylation; gene expression; neuroprotection; neurotoxicity.

*Corresponding author: **Cenk Suphioglu**, NeuroAllergy Research Laboratory, Faculty of Science and Technology, School of Life and Environment Sciences, Deakin University, Geelong, Waurn Ponds, 3216 Victoria, Australia, e-mail: cenk.suphioglu@deakin.edu.au
Jessica Kukucka, Tessa Wyllie, Justin Read and Lauren Mahoney: NeuroAllergy Research Laboratory, Faculty of Science and Technology, School of Life and Environment Sciences, Deakin University, Geelong, Waurn Ponds, 3216 Victoria, Australia

Introduction

The term 'epigenetics', the study of how genotypes influence phenotypes *via* programmed changes during development, was first coined by Conrad Waddington (1) in 1942. More recently, epigenetics refers to the study of phenotypic alterations in gene expression without eliciting changes on the underlying DNA sequence itself (2). Intertwined within our DNA are histone proteins that are targeted by a variety of enzymes that elicit posttranslational modifications (PTMs) leading to epigenetic modifications. The most

studied PTMs are histone acetylation and deacetylation. Histone acetyltransferases (HATs) have been implicated in gene expression, whereas histone deacetylases (HDACs) function in silencing gene expression (3). The precise regulation of HATs and HDACs are crucial for cellular identity and homeostasis, most particularly in neuronal cells, as they need to sustain their integrity throughout the lifetime of an individual. An aberrant epigenetic regulation in neuronal cells leads to pathological consequences such as neurodegeneration (4). Alzheimer's disease (AD) is one of the most common age-related neurodegenerative diseases of the brain, which brings about a devastating pathology and results in progressive cognitive decline and brain atrophy. Accumulating evidence suggests that neurodegenerative diseases have an epigenetic etiology (5, 6), but this is still under debate.

Currently, neurodegenerative diseases are incurable; therefore, great efforts need to be undertaken to develop therapeutic methods in ameliorating neurodegenerative diseases. The use of pan-HDAC inhibitors has provided great promise in remodeling the chromatin state to alleviate neurodegenerative manifestations (7, 8). However, reports have shown discrepancies in their functions (9, 10), which are potentially due to their nonselective nature. In recent years, HDACs have been shown to exhibit individual roles during neurodegeneration where certain isoforms are protective and others are neurotoxic. This review is aimed at discussing the most recent and promising findings associated with epigenetic mechanisms in neurodegenerative diseases.

Neurodegenerative diseases

Neurodegeneration is the general term used to describe the progressive loss of neuronal functionality and death within the central nervous system. AD is the most common age-related neurodegenerative disease of the brain, and its prevalence in society is steadily increasing due to the aging population. Recently, the World Health Organization reported that in 2010, 35.6 million people have dementia worldwide, and this figure has been estimated to triple by the year 2050. Globally,

there are 7.7 million new cases of dementia occurring each year, 60%–70% of which can be attributed to AD. Due to the rapid increase in the prevalence of AD and dementia, there is a dramatically rising social and economical burden due to increasing numbers of unpaid caregivers and rising costs, which have been approximated at US\$604 billion in 2010 (11). Due to this, AD and dementia have become a large global health issue, and great efforts need to be undertaken to deter the onset of neurodegenerative diseases.

Clinically, an individual with AD will experience sporadic episodes of memory loss and impairment of language skills and other cognitive abilities. In the advanced stages, memory loss and impairment are notably more prominent, which eventually lead to a cease in proper brain function (12). Pathological hallmarks underlying AD include extracellular deposition of amyloid β (A β) plaques and intracellular accumulation of neurofibrillary tangles (NFT), which account for the progressive deterioration of the brain (12). Parkinson disease (PD) is the second most prevalent neurodegenerative disease, which is characterized by intracellular inclusions of Lewy bodies and a decline in the number of dopaminergic neuronal cells within the substantia nigra pars compacta. As a result, patients with PD experience debilitating effects on motor functions including tremors, muscle rigidity, and bradykinesia (5, 13). Huntington's disease (HD) is another neurodegenerative disease affecting both cognitive and motor functions. It is an inherited autosomal dominant disorder, represented by an expansion of 36 CAG repeats on *Huntingtin*, that can manifest as early as 30 years old (13).

The pathogenesis of AD and other neurodegenerative diseases are multifactorial in nature, as both familial and sporadic types are known. Genetic predispositions are accountable for a minority of neurodegenerative diseases resulting from the mutations of risk genes, which generally lead to an early onset of neurodegeneration (5, 14). Sporadic neurodegenerative diseases appear later in life, where a variety of lifestyle choices and environmental stressors can greatly increase the risk of developing neurodegenerative diseases and dementia. For instance, dietary habits are increasingly being found to be important factors. Docosahexaenoic acid (DHA) is an essential ω -3 fatty acid that has been found to reduce the risk of developing dementia (15, 16). Moreover, caloric restriction, fruits, vegetables, and Mediterranean-like diets offer protection against neurodegeneration. In contrast, environmental exposures to certain metals and pesticides can greatly increase the likelihood of developing such ailments (5, 14).

Epigenetics and gene expression

Age is one of the most predominant risk factors associated with neurodegenerative diseases, and deviant epigenetic regulations have been linked to this widespread phenomenon (17, 18). A great majority is known about the pathology that underlies neurodegenerative diseases, yet the etiology remains unclear. Studies featuring monozygotic twins discordant for AD provided insight into the underlying molecular mechanisms associated with neurodegeneration and further indicate that phenotypic alterations are governed by epigenetic regulations, given their genetic resemblance (19). Classically, the term 'epigenetics' refers to the mechanisms causing heritable alterations in gene expression without eliciting changes to the DNA strand itself (2).

The presence of A β and τ pathologies in the AD brain is inevitable. However, it still begs the question whether they are the cause or the effect of the disease. Healthy aging alone does not correlate with neuronal cell loss; however, genes associated with normal neuronal functions such as learning, memory, and signal transduction decrease with age (20). Epigenetic alterations of gene expression in the aging brain arise from DNA damage and a variety of neuronal insults, which are highly implicated during neurodegenerative maladies (20, 21). A previous study profiled and contrasted 12 633 genes of the hippocampal cornu ammonis 1 (CA1) from six sex- and age-matched AD and non-AD donors. The damaging elements were discovered to be overexpressed, such as proapoptotic and inflammatory regulators, whereas the prosurvival elements including transcriptional factors were considerably downregulated in the AD CA1 in comparison to the healthy aged controls (22). This provides a strong indication that aberrant epigenetic regulations are associated with neurodegenerative etiology.

Epigenetic regulations such as histone PTMs have been shown to diverge significantly as we age, which may be attributed to a variety of environmental factors and daily routine (23). Dementia, including AD, is not associated with healthy aging (11), and therefore, it is imperative to gain knowledge of the potential risk factors as well as the implementation of healthy lifestyle changes to deter the onset of neurodegenerative diseases. In particular, certain foods contain bioactive components that can directly influence epigenetic machinery (24). In a recent publication, the NeuroAllergy Research Laboratory demonstrated that zinc and DHA are involved in the modulation of histone H3 PTMs, including lysine (K) acetylation and dimethylation and threonine (T) phosphorylation within the M17 human neuroblastoma cells (25). The

study effectively demonstrated that the DHA treatment induced H3K9 acetylation, including K9, K36, and K79 dimethylation, which decreased when treated with zinc. Alternatively, zinc promoted K4 and K27 dimethylation and T3 phosphorylation, which were shown to decrease upon DHA treatment (25). This study provides insight into the underlying molecular mechanisms regarding dietary intake and its influence on epigenetic regulations, particularly histone PTMs in human neuronal cells. Broccoli sprouts have shown natural HDAC inhibitory effects as early as 3 h after consumption of one cup, promoting an increase in histone H3 and H4 acetylation marks in peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMCs) of healthy participants (26). In addition, antioxidant-rich dietary components have shown promising neuroprotective effects against neurodegenerative diseases. Observational studies have shown that daily supplementation of blueberry (27) and Concord grape (28) juice for 12 weeks enhanced cognitive performances in elderly participants displaying mild cognitive impairments (MCI) in comparison to that of the placebo-supplemented participants. Similar sets of *in vitro* studies have demonstrated that the antioxidant polyphenol anthocyanin in blueberries and strawberries can attenuate oxidative stress mediated by cytotoxic stimuli (29, 30). From this research, it can be concluded that dietary interventions could provide promising therapeutic potentials to modulate aberrant histone PTMs (4) and alleviate oxidative stress syndromes (31) associated with neurodegenerative diseases.

There are a variety of epigenetic mechanisms that function in regulating gene expression, which include DNA methylation and histone PTMs. DNA methylation involves a covalent transfer of methyl group from the S-adenosyl-methionine to the fifth carbon of a cytosine residue, forming a 5-methylcytosine, which is catalyzed by a family of DNA methyltransferases (32). Histone PTMs are catalyzed by a variety of enzymes that influence chromatin conformation and gene expression, such as histone methylation, phosphorylation, ubiquitination, and acetylation (33). Histone acetylation is one of the most widely studied histone PTMs, which has been highly implicated during neurodegenerative diseases (4), and will therefore be the focus of this review.

HATs and HDACs

HATs and HDACs represent two different classes of enzymes that catalyze the acetylation and deacetylation, respectively, of K residues of histone proteins (Figure 1).

The nucleosome encompasses a histone octamer, which comprises an H3 and H4 tetramer and two dimers of H2A and H2B, enveloped by 147 bp of DNA (3). Each nucleosome is held together by a varying stretch of linker DNA associated with the H1 protein (34), creating a ‘beads-on-a-string’ appearance (35). Through electrostatic interactions, positively charged histones and negatively charged DNA function in stabilizing nucleosomal structures and configuring chromatin (34).

The histone acetylation activity performed by HATs transfer an acetyl moiety from the coenzyme A to K residues of histone N-terminal tails. This unwinds the DNA-histone conformation, facilitating gene expression by allowing the transcription factors to interact with the DNA. In contrast to this, the deacetylation activity by HDACs results in a compressed chromatin conformation. This ultimately impedes gene expression as transcriptional processes are limited due to the DNA being inaccessible (3). In humans, HDAC1 was the first enzyme to be characterized (36). To date, there are 18 known HDAC isoforms, which are categorized into four classes. Classes 1, 2, and 4 are zinc-dependent metallo-enzymes, whereas class 3 requires nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide for their catalytic activities (37, 38). Class 1 members show a homology to yeast RPD3, which consists of HDAC1, HDAC2, HDAC3, and HDAC8, and are primarily localized within the nucleus of a cell. Class 2 consists of HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC6, HDAC7, HDAC9, and HDAC10, which display nucleocytoplasmic shuttling and share great homology to yeast Hda1 (37, 38). This class is also subdivided into two subclasses in terms of the number of catalytic domains they possess. Class 2a includes HDAC4, HDAC5, HDAC7, and HDAC9, whereas class 2b includes HDAC6 and HDAC10, which contain one and two catalytic domains, respectively (38). However, it has recently been suggested that class 2a enzymes are not functional HDACs but rather function as acetyl lysine-binding proteins (39). HDACs belonging to class 3 are termed sirtuins, which contain SIRT1–7 and have shown high involvement in neurodegenerative diseases (40). HDAC11, the most recently characterized HDAC, is the only member of class 4, due to its differing phylogeny (41), and is shown to be the most abundant HDAC in the rat brain (42).

Together, HATs and HDACs regulate important processes that are integral to many cellular functions and survival (3, 43). The catalysis of HATs and HDACs is not solely restricted to histone proteins as they also catalyze a variety of transcriptional factors such as cAMP response element binding (CREB), whose functions have shown to be highly neuroprotective during neurodegeneration (44). In addition, they contain a variety of

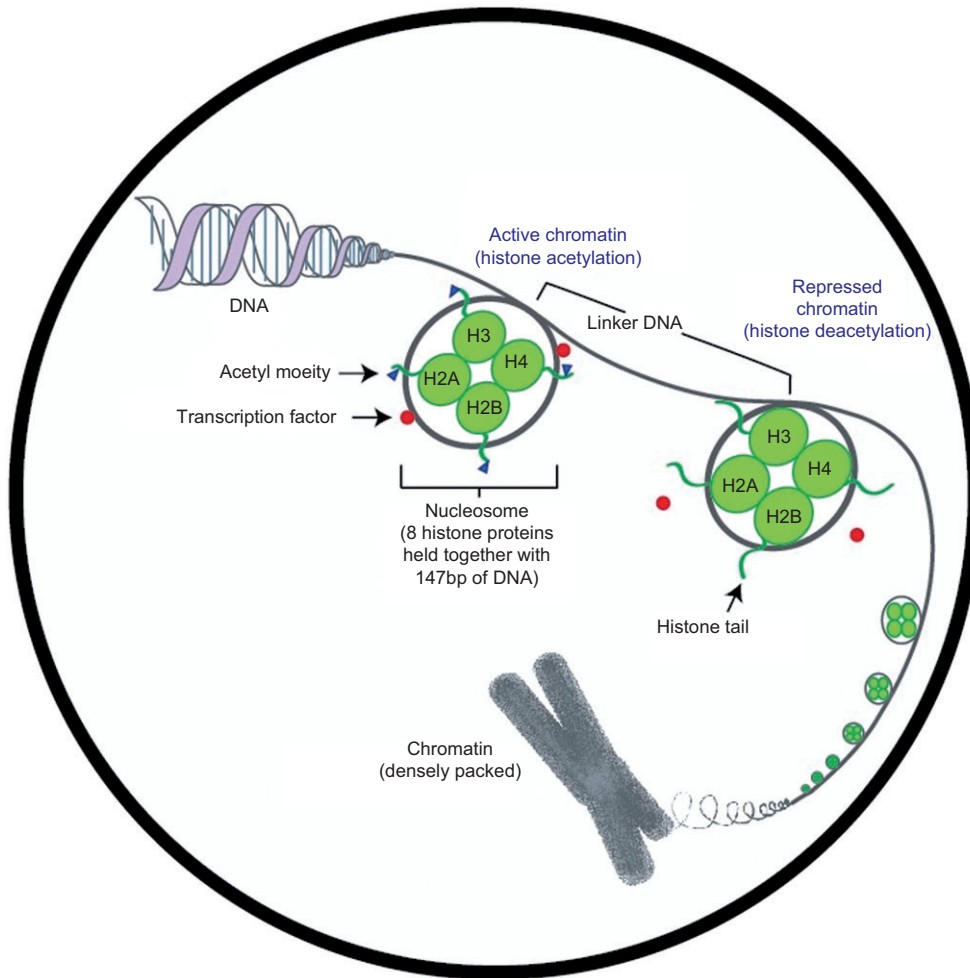


Figure 1 Chromatin organization and histone acetylation.

The diagram depicts the organization of double-stranded DNA into a neatly packaged chromatin structure. The nucleosome comprises 147 bp of DNA wrapped around a histone octamer that undergoes PTMs. The acetylation of core histone tails promotes an active chromatin state, where DNA loosens from the histones and enables the transcription factors to interact with the DNA. Histone deacetylation initiates a repressed chromatin state, where the DNA tightens around the histones and prevents the transcription factors to associate with the DNA.

nonhistone substrates (45, 46) that fundamentally serve a higher order in transcriptional regulation. The maintenance of neurophysiological homeostasis is achieved by orchestrating a balanced HAT and HDAC interchange into a functional equilibrium, which ensures proper transcriptional regulation and gene expression (Figure 2) (4). During neurodegenerative maladies, the HAT and HDAC interplay is imbalanced where significant HDAC activity increases and HAT activity decreases (4, 47, 48). This results in the silencing of transcriptional activities, which is vital for proper neuronal functioning and survival. HDAC inhibitors, as their name implies, function to effectively elevate cellular acetylation and thus provide great therapeutic potential in the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases (7, 8). Some of the most recent and promising findings regarding epigenetic regulations in

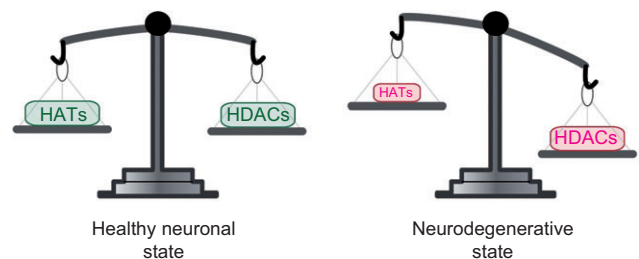


Figure 2 Neuronal histone acetylation.

Weights on the balance symbolize the protein levels of HATs and HDACs in a healthy neuronal state and a neurodegenerative state. During normal neuronal physiological conditions, HATs and HDACs are at equilibrium, which they counteract each other to maintain an optimal balance of gene expression. In a neurodegenerative state, the histone acetylation balance is tilted where HDACs excessively outweigh HATs, which in turn silences the transcriptional processes, and subsequently, gene expression.

AD pathology and associated manifestations will be discussed in the following sections.

Epigenetic mechanisms and AD-linked pathologies

One of the most profound pathological hallmarks associated with AD is the extracellular accumulation of amyloid plaques. The deposition of multiple A β fragments accumulate into a plaque through the proteolytic cleavage of the amyloid precursor protein (APP) by β - and γ -secretases. The β -secretase, commonly referred to as β -site APP-cleaving enzyme 1 (BACE1), initiates the defining PTM of the amyloidogenic pathway, which leads to AD pathogenesis (49). Recently, Marques et al. (50) discovered that *BACE1* mRNA levels and promoter accessibility were significantly increased in PBMCs in AD patients and progressively elevated in patients with MCI in comparison

to that of healthy controls. Ultimately, this may provide a pattern in mapping crucial gene regulations involved in AD progression.

In addition, increased BACE1 mRNA expression has been shown to be associated with increased global H3 hyperacetylation (50, 51), which may be mediated *via* acetylation and deacetylation by p300/CREB-binding protein (CBP) and HDAC3, respectively (51, 52) (Table 1). Together with BACE1-mediated APP cleavage, these studies suggest that epigenetic mechanisms play a vanguard role in AD pathogenesis and progression, thereby regulating BACE1 expression and transcription. Moreover, these studies also refer to global H3 hyperacetylation as a potential early-stage biomarker during AD pathology. The examination of PBMCs have provided a reliable method to research epigenetic mechanisms, including histone acetylation, which may have arisen *via* external influences (23) and mirrored the aberrant epigenetic machinery present in the neurodegenerative brain (53). Current findings have also identified potential blood-based protein biomarkers

Table 1 Role of HDACs and HATs during neurodegeneration.

	Class	Role during neurodegeneration	References
HDACs			
1	1	Silences neprilysin gene expression at promoter regions	(60)
		Promotes neuronal survival through restoration of double stranded DNA breaks <i>via</i> p25-mediated neurotoxicity	(108)
2	1	Complexes with HDAC3 and induces neurotoxicity	(110)
		Negatively regulates memory functions in transgenic AD mice	(94, 96)
3	1	Silences neuroprotective genes implicated in learning memory and synaptic plasticity by inducing local chromatin compaction promoter regions	(94)
		Negatively regulates memory formation	(97)
5	2	Selectively mediates apoptosis in neuronal cells	(109)
6	2	Regulates memory formation in transgenic AD mice	(91)
6	2	Exhibits increased expression in the AD brain and interacted with τ	(74)
		Inhibition correlates with τ degradation	(74, 76)
7	2	Regulates mitochondrial movement in hippocampal neurons	(75)
		Inhibition ameliorated dysfunctional mitochondrial movement induced by AB toxicity	(77)
7	2	Promotes neuronal survival <i>via</i> silencing c-jun at promoter regions	(107)
		Promotes neuronal survival by recruiting HDAC1 and silenced c-jun promoter regions	(111)
HDRP	2	Elevated function reduces neurotoxic HDAC1-HDAC3 interaction	(110)
SIRT1	3	Increases α -secretase transcription and expression	(66)
		Activity correlates with τ ubiquitination	(68)
HATs			
CBP		Enhances memory regulations	(83–86)
		Selectively mediates memory consolidation	(84)
		Depletion results in neuronal death and toxicity	(47, 99, 100)
		Functions as a transcriptional co-activator to CREB	(101)
		Over expression results in neuronal death within nutrient-rich conditions	(47)
PCAF		Enhances memory formation	(89, 90)
		Knockout mice exhibited resistance toward A β -mediated neurotoxicity	(106)
P300		Prevents phosphorylated τ degradation	(68)
P300/CBP		Enhances memory consolidation	(87, 88)
		Increases BACE1 mRNA expression at promoter regions	(51, 52)

in circulation within AD patients (54–57), which, when verified, may offer advantages during clinical approaches particularly *via* the mildly invasive nature. Postmortem autopsy provides an accurate diagnosis of AD; therefore, early detection tests are crucial to attain an adequate diagnosis of AD and to monitor disease progression and potential treatments.

Following γ -secretase-mediated APP processing, the APP intracellular domain (AICD) is generated (49), which has been revealed to serve roles in transcriptional regulation (58, 59). Interestingly, this AICD domain has been shown to bind to neprilysin promoters and encourage *NEP* gene expression (60). Neprilysin is the most potent pathological A β -degrading enzyme (61), which has been shown to decrease and negatively correlate with both insoluble A β_{40} and A β_{42} deposition in the AD brain (62). Therefore, upregulating the neprilysin gene, and subsequently, the enzymatic activity, is a viable therapeutic strategy to promote pathogenic amyloid clearance in the AD brain. Belyaev et al. (60) showed that *NEP* promoters were enriched with H4K8 and H4K16 acetylation within a transcriptionally active NB7 human neuroblastoma cell line. By contrast, the *NEP* promoter regions were occupied by the deacetylase HDAC1 within the transcriptionally inactive SH-SY5Y human neuroblastoma cells. Treatment with HDAC inhibitors (Table 2), valproic acid (VPA) and trichostatin A (TSA), significantly increased *NEP* expression and enzymatic activity in SH-SY5Y cells but not in the NB7 cell line, suggesting A β clearance can be reinstated *via* chromatin remodeling. Chromatin immunoprecipitation analysis using anti-HDAC1 and anti-AICD antibodies

revealed an increase in AICD binding to *NEP* promoter regions, which paralleled a decrease in HDAC1 binding within the SH-SY5Y cells after TSA treatment (60), which was also consistent with a subsequent *in vivo* study (63). These results indicate that HDAC1 silences *NEP* expression at promoter regions, and the downregulation exposes the *NEP* promoter and assists in AICD binding. In addition, intraperitoneal administration of VPA was shown to significantly increase neprilysin catalysis in the hippocampus of aged rats subjected to prenatal hypoxia, which corresponded with an enhancement of both short- and long-term memory formations (63). These studies identify HDAC1 as an attractive target to downregulate in order to facilitate the clearance of pathogenic A β in the AD brain and sequentially ameliorate the cognitive discrepancies associated with the neurodegenerative brain.

The non-amyloidic pathway commences with α -secretase-mediated cleavage of APP, which potentially decreases pathogenic plaque formation, thereby cleaving the APP between the regions of β - and γ -secretases (49). Recent evidence has emerged indicating that the deacetylase SIRT1 is highly neuroprotective during neurodegenerative diseases such as HD (64) and AD (65, 66). Of particular interest, SIRT1 mediates its neuroprotective roles by influencing APP processing, thereby increasing α -secretase transcription and expression (66). SIRT1-mediated deacetylation activates the retinoic acid receptor β , which associates with the *ADAM10* promoter regions and increases α -secretase transcription and production. As a result, SIRT1 deacetylase expression parallels with decreased A β plaque production in the brain (66). When

Table 2 Role of HDAC inhibitors during neurodegenerative diseases.

HDAC inhibitor	Role during neurodegenerative diseases	References
VPA	Inhibits HDAC1 and increases <i>NEP</i> expression <i>in vitro</i>	(60)
	Inhibits HDAC1 and increases <i>NEP</i> expression and enzymatic activity hypoxic rodents	(63)
	Enhances short- and long-term memory formation in hypoxic rodents	(63)
	Prevents A β deposition in transgenic AD mice	(78)
	Promotes the expression of BDNF and GDNF transcripts in neuronal cells within neurotoxic conditions	(105)
TSA	Increases <i>NEP</i> expression in neuroblastoma cell lines	(60)
	Promotes the expression of BDNF and GDNF transcripts in neuronal cells within neurotoxic conditions	(105)
TBA	Exhibits HDAC6 selectivity and restores dysfunctional mitochondrial movement induced by A β toxicity	(77)
PBA	Reduces NFT and A β pathology in transgenic AD mice	(79, 80)
	Enhances cognitive functions and memory deficits in transgenic AD mice	(79, 80)
	Increases the expression of synaptic plasticity markers	(79)
W2	Restores dendrite spine defects in transgenic AD mice	(80)
	Exhibits HDAC class 2 inhibitory functions	(81)
SAHA	Increases the expression of A β degrading enzyme Mmp2	(81)
	Promotes the expression of BDNF and GDNF transcripts in neuronal cells within neurotoxic conditions	(105)
RGFP123	Exhibits HDAC3 selectivity and enhanced memory formation within transgenic mice	(97)
NaBu	Enhances memory functions in transgenic AD mice	(48)

considering therapeutic treatments for AD, SIRT1 expression should be considered a potential method of deterring the formation of pathogenic A β production by influencing the α -secretase-mediated APP cleavage toward the non-amyloid pathway.

In the AD brain, the microtubule-associated protein τ undergoes hyperphosphorylation, forming intracellular NFT, which leads to increased neuronal dystrophy and progressive deterioration of the brain (67). Recently, research has revealed that τ acetylation is a critical PTM associated with τ -mediated neurodegeneration (68–70). τ Acetylation advances in the AD brain in response to A β pathologies and is increased in patients during mild to moderate Braak stages (68). It was also discovered that increased p300-mediated τ acetylation prevents phosphorylated τ degradation, whereas increased deacetylation activity of SIRT1 parallels with τ ubiquitination (68). Notably, increased τ acetylation at K280 provokes τ polymerization into pathological NFT formation, accelerating tauopathological neurodegeneration (69, 70). Taken together, these studies indicate that tauopathological-mediated AD may therefore be considered a neurodegenerative disease as characterized by hyperacetylation activities.

In neurodegenerative diseases, the activities of the deacetylase HDAC6 are still relatively unknown, where its activity has shown to be desirable within PD (71, 72) but detrimental to HD (73) and AD (74, 75). More specifically, HDAC6 exhibits increased expression in the AD brain (52% in the cortex and 91% in the hippocampus) and interacts with τ (74). The inhibition of HDAC6 correlates with τ degradation (74, 76) and regulates mitochondrial movement in hippocampal neurons (75). In addition, tubastatin A (TBA), a HDAC6-specific inhibitor, ameliorated the dysfunctional mitochondrial movement induced by A β toxicity (77). Taken together, these studies demonstrate that HDAC6 is a desirable target to downregulate in the context of AD.

HDAC inhibitors have shown great potential in alleviating neurodegenerative manifestations even at very advanced stages of AD (48). For example, the HDAC inhibitor VPA significantly prevents A β plaque deposition in the brains of transgenic AD mouse models by preventing APP γ -secretase cleavage *via* glycogen synthase kinase- β 3-dependent mechanisms (78). Sodium 4-phenylbutyrate (PBA) was shown to reduce hyperphosphorylated τ pathology (79) and facilitate A β clearance in the brain of an AD transgenic mouse model (80). In addition, W2, a novel mercaptoacetamide-based class 2 HDAC inhibitor, was shown to downregulate the expression of γ -secretase counterparts and upregulate the expression of A β degrading enzyme matrix metalloproteinase 2 (Mmp2) in a

transgenic AD mouse model (81). On a phenotypic basis, W2-administered mice exhibited a decrease in both A β ₄₀ and A β ₄₂ plaque levels and phosphorylated τ at Thr181 in comparison to control littermates. This study points to a functional role that class 2 HDACs may serve during the pathogenesis of AD (81). Taken together, these studies demonstrate that HDAC inhibitors provide promising therapeutic potentials in ameliorating AD-related pathologies.

Epigenetic mechanisms and cognitive performances

Progressive memory loss is one of the most prominent clinical symptoms associated with AD, and age is a great predisposing factor. Interestingly, Peleg et al. (82) discovered that altered histone acetylation correlates with age-dependent learning and memory impairment. Both young and aged mice display increased H3K9, H3K14, H4K5, and H4K8 acetylation 1h after fear conditioning. However, the aged mice failed to increase H4K12 acetylation in comparison to the young mice, suggesting that memory impairment is associated with defective acetylation of H4K12. Furthermore, hippocampal administration of the HDAC inhibitor, suberoylanilide hydroxamic acid (SAHA), increased H4K12 acetylation, which was also increased at the promoter regions of learning-regulated genes (82). This study successfully demonstrated that impaired memory regulation processes during brain aging can be maintained through chromatin remodeling.

Histone acetylation results in a transcriptionally active chromatin, which in turn facilitates gene expression. The functions of the HAT CBP in the nervous system are highly regarded due to their fundamental roles during memory regulations (83–86). A recent study conducted by Barrett et al. (84) revealed that CBP selectively mediates memory consolidation. This study generated focal homozygous *Cbp* deletion in the hippocampal CA1 subregion in mice, which displayed long-term memory deficits in contextual fear and object location paradigms. Immunohistochemical analysis revealed the H2BK12, H3K14, and H4K8 acetylation was significantly reduced in hippocampal neurons lacking *Cbp*. CBP upstream signaling occurred, as CREB phosphorylation was evident; however, CREB:CBP-mediated *c-fos* gene expression was not achieved, indicating that CBP functions are central for CREB:CBP-coupled gene expression. Interestingly, systemic administration of HDAC inhibitor sodium butyrate (NaBu) failed to alleviate memory deficits. This is a strong indication that CBP functionality is vital for

long-term memory formation, as CBP loss cannot be compensated by its sister HAT, p300 (84). Similarly, p300 provides beneficial entities during memory consolidation, as transgenic mice containing defective p300 (87) and sub-region-specific p300 knockout (88) were shown to exhibit long-term memory deficits. The results of this study strongly indicated that the loss of p300 cannot be compensated by CBP (88), further highlighting the imperative functionality these acetyltransferases mediate during memory regulations. Additionally, p300/CBP-associated factor (PCAF) functions have shown an involvement during memory formation as an upregulation correlates with fear extinction memory (89) and PCAF knockout results in memory impairment (90).

In addition to HAT activity, recent evidence has emerged that suggests HDAC5 is vital for memory functions during AD-mediated neurodegeneration (91). This research used four experimental groups of rodents (including wild type) established from a C57BL/6J genetic background. The AD A β PP/PS1-21 (A β PP) rodent model encompasses a double transgene of mutated APP (KM670/671NL) and presenilin 1 (L166 P) influenced by a neuron-specific promoter, Thy1, which exhibits cerebral A β plaque pathology as early as 6 weeks old (92). The authors also used HDAC5 knockout mice (HDAC5^{-/-}) and cross-bred them with A β PP rodents, generating offspring exhibiting the AD double transgene and HDAC5 depletion (A β PP-HDAC5^{-/-}) (91). It was observed that spatial memory performance was significantly impaired in the A β -PPHDAC5^{-/-} mice, which was comparable to the performance of HDAC5^{-/-} mice, in comparison to that of both the A β PP and wild-type mice. Rodents were also fear-conditioned to examine associative memory functions among the four groups. The analysis of tone-dependent memory consolidation revealed a significant decrease in the freezing behavior of A β PP-HDAC5^{-/-} and HDAC5^{-/-} mice in comparison to A β PP and wild-type mice (91). This indicated that a loss of HDAC5 significantly impairs memory consolidation greater than AD-mediated pathology alone. Therefore, when considering the therapeutic treatment of cognitive decline during AD-mediated neurodegeneration, HDAC5 inhibition should be avoided.

A pioneering study revealed that the nonselective HDAC inhibitors SAHA, NaBu, and VPA inhibited class 1 HDACs with greater efficiency than class 2 isoforms in an AD mouse model exhibiting memory deficits (93). This strongly suggests that class 1 HDACs are central for treating memory impairments seen in AD. In addition, HDAC2 has been identified as an epigenetic blockade of cognitive function seen in the AD brain (94). Using a transgenic CK-p25 mouse model overexpressing p25 within

the forebrain (95), it was shown that HDAC2 silences the neuroprotective genes that are implicated in learning, memory, and synaptic plasticity by inducing local chromatin compaction at promoter regions (94). This suggests that cognitive decline during neurodegenerative disease is negatively mediated by HDAC2 functionality, which is consistent with earlier findings (96). The authors of the recent study discovered that the presence of AD-related neurotoxic stimuli, A β ₁₋₄₂ oligomers, increased *Hdac2* mRNA and transcription, which were found to be mediated *via* the activation of the transcription factor glucocorticoid receptor 1. Reducing the HDAC2 levels using adeno-associated viral vectors bearing short-hairpin RNA resulted in H4K12 hyperacetylation at promoter regions of neuroprotective genes, which ameliorated the synaptic plasticity and neuronal morphology. This indicates that during A β -mediated neurodegeneration, HDAC2 induces cognitive dysfunction by silencing neuroprotective genes at their promoter regions (94). These studies demonstrate the significance of an HDAC2-specific inhibitor for the therapeutic treatment of cognitive disorders associated with neurodegenerative diseases.

In addition, McQuown et al. (97) indicated that HDAC3, the most highly expressed class 1 HDAC in the brain, has a critical role in the molecular mechanisms that underlie long-term memory formation (42). In this study, adeno-associated virus-expressing Cre recombinase was used in conjunction with HDAC-FLOX genetically modified mice in an attempt to produce focal homozygous deletions of HDAC3 in the dorsal hippocampus. A pharmacological approach was used in conjunction with the genetic study where the delivery of RGFP123, a selective inhibitor of HDAC3, was shown to cause an increase in histone acetylation within the hippocampus and a consequent enhancement of long-term memory function. Expressions of the nuclear receptor Nr4a2 and the protein *c-fos* were significantly higher in the hippocampus of the genetically modified mice than in controls, indicating their integral involvement in memory formation. Further research indicated that when *Nr4a2* was inserted into the hippocampus of the HDAC3-FLOX mice, the memory formation enhancements were abolished, strongly indicating a negative regulation of memory formation by HDAC3. The genetic and pharmacological approaches of this study provided a strong support for the integral role of HDAC3 in the underlying mechanisms that drive long-term memory formation (97).

The HDAC inhibitor NaBu has shown great therapeutic promise in ameliorating cognitive discrepancies in mice at advanced stages of AD (48). This study used aged A β PP transgenic mice and assessed the associative

memory function following intraperitoneal injection of NaBu or vehicle treatments. NaBu-administered mice displayed significantly increased freezing behavior during the Pavlovian fear conditioning paradigm in comparison to vehicle-treated mice. This suggests that NaBu facilitates associative learning behavior in advanced stages of AD pathology (48). PBA was shown to enhance associative learning in both aged wild-type mice and aged transgenic AD mice (80). Furthermore, PBA administered to aged Tg2576 mice expressing the human 695-amino acid isoform of APP containing the Swedish double mutation and exhibiting accelerated AD pathology improved the spatial memory defects, recovered the loss of H4 acetylation, and promoted the expression of synaptic plasticity markers (79). Taken together, these studies demonstrate that HDAC inhibitors could provide an effective method of treating cognitive disorders seen in AD.

Epigenetic mechanisms and neuronal protection

Postmitotic neurons do not divide and persist throughout the lifetime of an individual. Neuronal cell degradation and death is a characteristic feature of neurodegenerative diseases, including AD. Neuronal apoptotic events have been shown to follow H3 and H4 hypoacetylation (47), which is indicative of a repressive chromatin state. Therefore, a balanced HAT and HDAC activity is vital for neuronal survival by appropriately regulating the transcriptional factors and actively promoting and silencing gene expression, respectively (4). In the nervous system, transcriptional dysregulation leads to such manifestations that can occur through the upregulation of death-inducing genes and silencing genes involved in neuronal survival (10, 47, 98).

In addition to memory regulation, the acetyltransferase CBP is also a beneficial regulator of neuronal cell viability. This has been made evident by a loss of its function, which consequently results in neuronal cell death and toxicity during neurodegenerative maladies (47, 99, 100). Additionally, CBP functions are highly regarded in part due to its influence as a coactivator to the transcription factor CREB (101). CREB functionality within the brain poses high significance, as a previous study revealed that a disruption of CREB leads to neuronal apoptosis and progressive neurodegeneration of the mouse brain (102). It has also been shown that an upregulation of wild-type CREB (in comparison to mutated CREB) significantly reverses the incidence of neuronal apoptosis

within cytotoxic conditions, thereby increasing the gene expression of the vital neurotrophin brain-derived neurotrophic factor (BDNF) and activity-regulated inhibitor of death genes (103). Attenuating the chromatin state with the use of HDAC inhibitors can remarkably reverse neuronal apoptotic death (98, 104). HDAC inhibitors VPA, TSA, and SAHA induced the expression of neuroprotective transcripts BDNF and glial cell line-derived neurotrophic factor (GDNF) via H3 hyperacetylation at promoter regions in dopaminergic neurons in the presence of neurotoxin MPP⁺ (105). Furthermore, PBA treatment ameliorates dendrite spine deficits in Tg2576 hippocampal neurons (80).

An elevated level of HAT activity is a favorable entity in neuronal cells; however, it has been discovered that CBP overexpression in nutrient-rich conditions can lead to apoptotic morphology in neuronal cells (47). This provides great insight regarding the fundamental regulatory processes of HATs and HDACs in neuronal survival. Although CBP functionality is highly neuroprotective (99, 100), its upregulation is neurotoxic, suggesting that fine-tuning HAT activities is a vital mechanism to augment neuronal survival during both healthy and neurodegenerative conditions (47). In addition, PCAF knockout mice have exhibited resistance toward A β_{25-35} -mediated neurotoxicity (106). Rodents received intracerebroventricular administration of A β_{25-35} , and their hippocampi were removed 7 days following treatment. The expression analysis of oxidative stress marker (peroxidized lipids), cellular stress marker (caspase 3), and endoplasmic reticulum stress marker (caspase 12) showed significant increased expression in the hippocampal CA1 regions of wild-type littermates in comparison to the PCAF knockout mice (106). This finding suggests that a downregulation of PCAF activities may provide a positive mechanism in ameliorating A β -mediated neurodegenerative manifestation, thereby weakening the proapoptotic mediators.

Moreover, previous studies have discovered that nonspecific HDAC inhibitors induce neuronal apoptosis under prosurvival conditions (9, 10). Collectively, increasing histone hyperacetylation activity leads to a transcriptional active chromatin state where proapoptotic mediators can be expressed (10). It is therefore reasonable to conclude that certain HDAC isoforms are required to selectively repress transcriptional processes, which in turn mediate neuronal survival. For example, it was thought that HDAC7 activities are highly neuroprotective during neurodegeneration (107). It was shown that HDAC7 translocates into the nucleus where it arbitrates its neuroprotective effects, thereby inhibiting the transcription of proapoptotic mediator *c-Jun* via the interaction with its promoter. It was also demonstrated that forced HDAC7

expression reversed neuronal cell death in the presence of neurotoxic A β peptides in rodent cortical neurons (107). There are several beneficial activities associated with HDAC7 expression, particularly increasing the survival of neurons during A β -mediated neurodegeneration seen in AD. HDAC1 functions have also been associated with neuronal survival through the restoration of double-stranded DNA breaks *via* p25-mediated neurotoxicity (108).

In a contrast, HDAC3 has been demonstrated to strongly influence neuronal death (109). The effects of forced HDAC3 expression was analyzed in rodent cerebral granule neurons under pro-survival (i.e., high potassium) and pro-apoptotic (i.e., low potassium) conditions, which resulted in neuronal loss and complete neurodegeneration, respectively. Further analysis using TUNEL staining confirmed HDAC3 toxicity, whereas the presence of caspase 3 was confirmed *via* immunohistochemistry. This effect was trialed with primary kidney fibroblasts, HEK293 and HeLa cell lines, where no effect of cellular viability was evident, suggesting that HDAC3-mediated toxicity is selective to neuronal cells. Additional research using two separate short-hairpin RNA constructs against HDAC3 protected the cerebellar granule neurons and cortical neurons from death initiated by apoptotic stimuli. Taken together, this study effectively identified HDAC3 as a potent neurotoxic deacetylase and therefore becomes an attractive target to downregulate in an effort to increase neuronal viability during neurodegeneration (109). In a subsequent study, the authors showed that HDAC1 contributes to neurodegeneration and is highly neurotoxic, as it complexes with HDAC3 in mediating neuronal death (110). Previously, the HDAC-related protein (HDRP), a truncated form of HDAC9, was shown to recruit HDAC1 and deacetylate H3 at *c-Jun* promoter regions, which is dependent upon HDAC1 deacetylase activity (111). Bardai et al. (110) showed that HDAC1 and HDRP associate *via* HDAC1 N-terminal tails and the neurotoxic HDAC1-HDAC3 interaction is reduced when HDRP expression is elevated, suggesting that HDAC1 is sequestered by HDRP. Taken together, HDAC1 performs as a molecular switch in regulating neuronal fate. When HDAC1 and HDAC3 interact, they work in tandem in mediating neuronal death; however, HDAC1 functions are neuroprotective when HDRP associates with and interferes with HDAC1-mediated neurotoxicity (110).

Findings have surfaced suggesting that excessive zinc in neuronal cells is toxic, thereby, influencing A β aggregation in the brains of transgenic AD mice (112) and colocalizes with A β plaques in the brains of AD patients (113). In contrast, DHA has shown neuroprotective properties, as high levels of dietary DHA protected against A β neurotoxicity and decreased plaque load in AD transgenic

mice (114). On an epigenetic basis, our research group discovered that zinc and DHA can directly influence the expression levels of H3 and H4 in M17 human neuroblastoma cells. The zinc effect (absence of DHA) resulted in a downregulation of H3 and H4 mRNA. However, in the DHA effect (presence of zinc and DHA), histone expression was considerably upregulated (115). In a subsequent study, Sadli et al. (25) looked at the effects of zinc and DHA on the acetylation level of H3K9. It was discovered that H3K9 was significantly hypoacetylated with zinc and hyperacetylated with DHA. Further research demonstrated that zinc and DHA have opposite effects in the modulation of HDAC1, HDAC2, and HDAC3 expression levels. HDAC1, HDAC2, and HDAC3 were significantly increased during the zinc effect and were significantly decreased during DHA effect, a dysregulated acetylation balance characteristic of neurodegeneration (4). Furthermore, during the zinc effect, caspase 3 expression increased, whereas Bcl-2 expression decreased. This observation was in complete contrast to the DHA effect, which demonstrates the highly neuroprotective properties that DHA offers in modulating the chromatin state and thus ameliorating the incidence of neurodegenerative diseases (25). This research opens up new avenues to therapeutic potentials in treating neurodegenerative diseases such as AD.

Expert opinion

A balanced HAT and HDAC interplay is vital for neuronal cell functionality, thereby coordinating gene expression in a healthy manner. During a neurodegenerative state, this balance is pushed where HDAC activity overrides HAT activity, resulting in a repressed chromatin state (4). Previous studies have shown the beneficial functions that pan-HDAC inhibitors can offer in the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases; however, there have been reports of contradictory effects (9, 10, 116). Knowledge of individual HAT and HDAC functions in the nervous system will prove beneficial in designing appropriate drug targets to ameliorate the incidence of neurodegenerative diseases. Research has flourished in recent years and has shown that certain HDAC isoforms are relatively neuroprotective (66, 91, 107, 108) and inhibition should be avoided. Other HDAC isoforms have shown to selectively mediate neurotoxic effects (94, 97, 109), and focus should be put on efforts to downregulate these specific isoforms. Additionally, certain HDACs have shown to mediate differential roles during neurodegenerative diseases (71–75, 77, 108, 110). Therefore, more research is required to decipher

the precise mechanism by which certain HDAC isoforms mediate neurotoxic effects and manufacture inhibitors with great specificity in the context of the neurodegenerative disease. Additionally, isoform specificity will aid in augmenting the acetylation balance into a desirable neurophysiological state. Pan-HDAC inhibition within prosurvival conditions resulted in neuronal catastrophes (9, 10); thus, a balance of HDAC functionality is required to augment the chromatin state.

Outlook

Isoform-specific inhibitors have a great potential in the treatment of neurodegenerative diseases. Combined with the knowledge of individual HDAC function and influences in the nervous system, isoform-specific inhibitors will allow for the downregulation of exclusively neurotoxic HDACs. Recent research strongly indicates that isoform-specific inhibition could provide a promising prophylactic treatment for neurological disorders.

Highlights

- SIRT1 activity promotes the expression of α -secretase by activating the retinoic acid receptor β , which associates with the ADAM10 promoter regions and increases the α -secretase expression. Therefore, SIRT1 functionality correlates with reduced A β plaque formation.
- HDAC6 inhibition correlates with τ degradation and ameliorated the dysfunctional mitochondrial motility induced by A β toxicity, pointing to fundamental

properties of HDAC6 may provide to alleviate neurodegenerative manifestations.

- Loss of HDAC5 functionality in the AD brain significantly impairs memory function; therefore, therapeutics should be aimed at upregulating HDAC5 to treat cognitive disorders associated with neurodegeneration.
- HDAC2 functions as an epigenetic blockade by silencing the neuroplasticity genes at the promoter regions in transgenic AD mouse brain; thus, great efforts are needed to manufacture a promising HDAC2-specific inhibitor to effectively alleviate memory deficits associated with AD.
- HDAC3, a negative regulator of memory formation, is an attractive target to reduce in order to facilitate adequate memory functions.
- PCAF knockout mice exhibit resistance to A β toxicity, signifying that a downregulation of PCAF may have beneficial entities in remedying AD.
- HDAC7 is a neuroprotective deacetylase, as it interacts and silences *c-Jun* expression during A β -induced neurotoxicity; therefore, its expression should be encouraged to sustain neuronal integrity within AD patients.
- An increased expression HDAC3 selectively induces apoptosis and toxicity in neuronal cells, and for this reason, this specific isoform is an attractive target to inhibit when treating neurodegenerative diseases and other neuronal disorders.

Conflict of interest statement: The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

Received December 4, 2012; accepted February 26, 2013

References

1. Waddington CH. Canalization of development and the inheritance of acquired characters. *Nature* 1942; 150: 563–5.
2. Holliday R. Epigenetics: a historical overview. *Epigenetics* 2006; 1: 76–80.
3. Shahbazian MD, Grunstein M. Functions of site-specific histone acetylation and deacetylation. *Annu Rev Biochem* 2007; 76: 75–100.
4. Saha RN, Pahan K. HATs and HDACs in neurodegeneration: a tale of disconcerted acetylation homeostasis. *Cell Death Differ* 2006; 13: 539–50.
5. Kwok JB. Role of epigenetics in Alzheimer's and Parkinson's disease. *Epigenomics* 2010; 2: 671–82.
6. Marques SC, Oliveira CR, Pereira CM, Outeiro TF. Epigenetics in neurodegeneration: a new layer of complexity. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry* 2011; 35: 348–55.
7. Chuang DM, Leng Y, Marinova Z, Kim HJ, Chiu CT. Multiple roles of HDAC inhibition in neurodegenerative conditions. *Trends Neurosci* 2009; 32: 591–601.
8. Sleiman SF, Basso M, Mahishi L, Kozikowski AP, Donohoe ME, Langley B, Ratan RR. Putting the 'HAT' back on survival signalling: the promises and challenges of HDAC inhibition in the treatment of neurological conditions. *Expert Opin Investig Drugs* 2009; 18: 573–84.
9. Salminen A, Tapiola T, Korhonen P, Suuronen T. Neuronal apoptosis induced by histone deacetylase inhibitors. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res* 1998; 61: 203–6.
10. Boutillier AL, Trinh E, Loeffler JP. Selective E2F-dependent gene transcription is controlled by histone deacetylase activity during neuronal apoptosis. *J Neurochem* 2003; 84: 814–28.

11. World Health Organization. Dementia: a public health priority. Geneva: World Health Organization and Alzheimer's Disease International, 2012. Available from: http://www.who.int/mental_health/publications/dementia_report_2012/en/index.html. Accessed on September 7, 2012.
12. Ballard C, Gauthier S, Corbett A, Brayne C, Aarsland D, Jones E. Alzheimer's disease. *Lancet* 2011; 377: 1019–31.
13. Habibi E, Masoudi-Nejad A, Abdolmaleky HM, Haggarty SJ. Emerging roles of epigenetic mechanisms in Parkinson's disease. *Funct Integr Genomics* 2011; 11: 523–37.
14. Migliore L, Coppede F. Genetics, environmental factors and the emerging role of epigenetics in neurodegenerative diseases. *Mutat Res* 2009; 667: 82–97.
15. Huang TL, Zandi PP, Tucker KL, Fitzpatrick AL, Kuller LH, Fried LP, Burke GL, Carlson MC. Benefits of fatty fish on dementia risk are stronger for those without APOE epsilon4. *Neurology* 2005; 65: 1409–14.
16. Morris MC, Evans DA, Bienias JL, Tangney CC, Bennett DA, Wilson RS, Aggarwal N, Schneider J. Consumption of fish and n-3 fatty acids and risk of incident Alzheimer disease. *Arch Neurol* 2003; 60: 940–6.
17. Lee CT, Duerre JA. Changes in histone methylase activity of rat brain and liver with ageing. *Nature* 1974; 251: 240–2.
18. Tohgi H, Utsugisawa K, Nagane Y, Yoshimura M, Genda Y, Ukitsu M. Reduction with age in methylcytosine in the promoter region -224 approximately -101 of the amyloid precursor protein gene in autopsy human cortex. *Brain Res Mol Brain Res* 1999; 70: 288–92.
19. Mastroeni D, McKee A, Grover A, Rogers J, Coleman PD. Epigenetic differences in cortical neurons from a pair of monozygotic twins discordant for Alzheimer's disease. *PLoS One* 2009; 4: e6617.
20. Lu T, Pan Y, Kao S, Li C, Kohane I, Chan J, Yankner B. Gene regulation and DNA damage in the ageing human brain. *Nature* 2004; 429: 883–91.
21. Mecocci P, MacGarvey U, Kaufman AE, Koontz D, Shoffner JM, Wallace DC, Beal MF. Oxidative damage to mitochondrial DNA shows marked age-dependent increases in human brain. *Ann Neurol* 1993; 34: 609–16.
22. Colangelo V, Schurr J, Ball MJ, Pelaez RP, Bazan NG, Lukiw WJ. Gene expression profiling of 12633 genes in Alzheimer hippocampal CA1: transcription and neurotrophic factor down-regulation and up-regulation of apoptotic and pro-inflammatory signaling. *J Neurosci Res* 2002; 70: 462–73.
23. Fraga MF, Ballestar E, Paz MF, Ropero S, Setien F, Ballestar ML, Heine-Suñer D, Cigudosa JC, Urioste M, Benitez J, Boix-Chornet M, Sanchez-Aguilera A, Ling C, Carlsson E, Poulsen P, Vaag A, Stephan Z, Spector TD, Wu YZ, Plass C, Esteller M. Epigenetic differences arise during the lifetime of monozygotic twins. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2005; 102: 10604–9.
24. Kim GW, Gocevski G, Wu CJ, Yang XJ. Dietary, metabolic, and potentially environmental modulation of the lysine acetylation machinery. *Int J Cell Biol* 2010; 2010: 632739.
25. Sadli N, Ackland ML, De Mel D, Sinclair AJ, Suphioglu C. Effects of zinc and DHA on the epigenetic regulation of human neuronal cells. *Cell Physiol Biochem* 2012; 29: 87–98.
26. Myzak MC, Tong P, Dashwood WM, Dashwood RH, Ho E. Sulforaphane retards the growth of human PC-3 xenografts and inhibits HDAC activity in human subjects. *Exp Biol Med (Maywood)* 2007; 232: 227–34.
27. Krikorian R, Shidler MD, Nash TA, Kalt W, Vinqvist-Tymchuk MR, Shukitt-Hale B, Joseph JA. Blueberry supplementation improves memory in older adults. *J Agric Food Chem* 2010; 58: 3996–4000.
28. Krikorian R, Nash TA, Shidler MD, Shukitt-Hale B, Joseph JA. Concord grape juice supplementation improves memory function in older adults with mild cognitive impairment. *Br J Nutr* 2010; 103: 730–4.
29. Joseph JA, Bielinski DF, Fisher DR. Blueberry treatment antagonizes C-2 ceramide-induced stress signaling in muscarinic receptor-transfected COS-7 cells. *J Agric Food Chem* 2010; 58: 3380–92.
30. Heo HJ, Lee CY. Strawberry and its anthocyanins reduce oxidative stress-induced apoptosis in PC12 cells. *J Agric Food Chem* 2005; 53: 1984–9.
31. Yan MH, Wang X, Zhu X. Mitochondrial defects and oxidative stress in Alzheimer disease and Parkinson disease. *Free Radic Biol Med* 2012.
32. Moore LD, Le T, Fan G. DNA methylation and its basic function. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2013; 38: 23–38.
33. Berger SL. The complex language of chromatin regulation during transcription. *Nature* 2007; 447: 407–12.
34. Korolev N, Lyubartsev AP, Laaksonen A. Electrostatic background of chromatin fiber stretching. *J Biomol Struct Dyn* 2004; 22: 215–26.
35. Olins AL, Olins DE. Spheroid chromatin units (v bodies). *Science* 1974; 183: 330–2.
36. Taunton J, Hassig CA, Schreiber SL. A mammalian histone deacetylase related to the yeast transcriptional regulator Rpd3p. *Science* 1996; 272: 408–11.
37. de Ruijter AJ, van Gennip AH, Caron HN, Kemp S, van Kuilenburg AB. Histone deacetylases (HDACs): characterization of the classical HDAC family. *Biochem J* 2003; 370: 737–49.
38. Gregoret IV, Lee YM, Goodson HV. Molecular evolution of the histone deacetylase family: functional implications of phylogenetic analysis. *J Mol Biol* 2004; 338: 17–31.
39. Bradner JE, West N, Grachan ML, Greenberg EF, Haggarty SJ, Warnow T, Mazitschek R. Chemical phylogenetics of histone deacetylases. *Nat Chem Biol* 2010; 6: 238–43.
40. Donmez G. The neurobiology of sirtuins and their role in neurodegeneration. *Trends Pharmacol Sci* 2012; 33: 494–501.
41. Gao L, Cueto MA, Asselbergs F, Atadja P. Cloning and functional characterization of HDAC11, a novel member of the human histone deacetylase family. *J Biol Chem* 2002; 277: 25748–55.
42. Broide RS, Redwine JM, Aftahi N, Young W, Bloom FE, Winrow CJ. Distribution of histone deacetylases 1–11 in the rat brain. *J Mol Neurosci* 2007; 31: 47–58.
43. Haberland M, Montgomery RL, Olson EN. The many roles of histone deacetylases in development and physiology: implications for disease and therapy. *Nat Rev Genet* 2009; 10: 32–42.
44. Sakamoto K, Karelina K, Obrietan K. CREB: a multifaceted regulator of neuronal plasticity and protection. *J Neurochem* 2011; 116: 1–9.
45. Glozak MA, Sengupta N, Zhang X, Seto E. Acetylation and deacetylation of non-histone proteins. *Gene* 2005; 363: 15–23.
46. Close P, Creppe C, Gillard M, Ladang A, Chapelle JP, Nguyen L, Chariot A. The emerging role of lysine acetylation of non-nuclear proteins. *Cell Mol Life Sci* 2010; 67: 1255–64.

47. Rouaux C, Jokic N, Mbebi C, Boutillier S, Loeffler JP, Boutillier AL. Critical loss of CBP/p300 histone acetylase activity by caspase-6 during neurodegeneration. *EMBO J* 2003; 22: 6537–49.
48. Govindarajan N, Agis-Balboa RC, Walter J, Sananbenesi F, Fischer A. Sodium butyrate improves memory function in an Alzheimer's disease mouse model when administered at an advanced stage of disease progression. *J Alzheimers Dis* 2011; 26: 187–97.
49. Read JL, Suphioglu C. Dropping the BACE: beta secretase (BACE1) as an Alzheimer's disease intervention target. In: Kishore U, editor. *Neurodegenerative diseases*. Croatia: InTech, 2013 [in press].
50. Marques SC, Lemos R, Ferreira E, Martins M, de Mendonça A, Santana I, Outeiro TF, Pereira CM. Epigenetic regulation of BACE1 in Alzheimer's disease patients and in transgenic mice. *Neuroscience* 2012; 220: 256–66.
51. Guo X, Wu X, Ren L, Liu G, Li L. Epigenetic mechanisms of amyloid-beta production in anisomycin-treated SH-SY5Y cells. *Neuroscience* 2011; 194: 272–81.
52. Gu X, Sun J, Li S, Wu X, Li L. Oxidative stress induces DNA demethylation and histone acetylation in SH-SY5Y cells: potential epigenetic mechanisms in gene transcription in Abeta production. *Neurobiol Aging* 2013; 34: 1069–79.
53. Anderson AN, Roncaroli F, Hodges A, Deprez M, Turkheimer FE. Chromosomal profiles of gene expression in Huntington's disease. *Brain* 2008; 131: 381–8.
54. Doecke JD, Laws SM, Faux NG, Wilson W, Burnham SC, Lam CP, Mondal A, Bedo J, Bush AI, Brown B, De Ruyck K, Ellis KA, Fowler C, Gupta VB, Head R, Macaulay SL, Pertile K, Rowe CC, Rembach A, Rodrigues M, Rumble R, Szoek C, Taddei K, Taddei T, Trounson B, Ames D, Masters CL, Martins RN; Alzheimer's Disease Neuroimaging Initiative; Australian Imaging Biomarker and Lifestyle Research Group. Blood-based protein biomarkers for diagnosis of Alzheimer disease. *Arch Neurol* 2012; 69: 1318–25.
55. O'Bryant SE, Xiao G, Barber R, Reisch J, Doody R, Fairchild T, Adams P, Waring S, Diaz-Arrastia R; Texas Alzheimer's Research Consortium. A serum protein-based algorithm for the detection of Alzheimer disease. *Arch Neurol* 2010; 67: 1077–81.
56. O'Bryant SE, Hobson VL, Hall JR, Barber RC, Zhang S, Johnson L, Diaz-Arrastia R; Texas Alzheimer's Research Consortium. Serum brain-derived neurotrophic factor levels are specifically associated with memory performance among Alzheimer's disease cases. *Dement Geriatr Cogn Disord* 2011; 31: 31–6.
57. Ray S, Britschgi M, Herbert C, Takeda-Uchimura Y, Boxer A, Blennow K, Friedman L, Galasko D, Jutel M, Karydas A, Kaye J, Leszek J, Miller B, Minthon L, Quinn J, Rabinovici G, Robinson W, Sabbagh M, So Y, Sparks D, Tabaton M, Tinklenberg J, Yesavage J, Tibshirani R, Wyss-Coray T. Classification and prediction of clinical Alzheimer's diagnosis based on plasma signaling proteins. *Nat Med* 2007; 13: 1359–62.
58. Cao X, Sudhof TC. A transcriptionally [correction of transcriptively] active complex of APP with Fe65 and histone acetyltransferase Tip60. *Science* 2001; 293: 115–20.
59. Pardossi-Piquard R, Petit A, Kawarai T, Sunyach C, Alves da Costa C, Vincent B, Ring S, D'Adamio L, Shen J, Müller U, St George Hyslop P, Checler F. Presenilin-dependent transcriptional control of the Abeta-degrading enzyme neprilysin by intracellular domains of betaAPP and APLP. *Neuron* 2005; 46: 541–54.
60. Belyaev ND, Nalivaeva NN, Makova NZ, Turner AJ. Neprilysin gene expression requires binding of the amyloid precursor protein intracellular domain to its promoter: implications for Alzheimer disease. *EMBO Rep* 2009; 10: 94–100.
61. Shirotani K, Tsubuki S, Iwata N, Takaki Y, Harigaya W, Maruyama K, Kiryu-Seo S, Kiyama H, Iwata H, Tomita T, Iwatsubo T, Saido TC. Neprilysin degrades both amyloid beta peptides 1-40 and 1-42 most rapidly and efficiently among thiorphan- and phosphoramidon-sensitive endopeptidases. *J Biol Chem* 2001; 276: 21895–901.
62. Hellstrom-Lindahl E, Ravid R, Nordberg A. Age-dependent decline of neprilysin in Alzheimer's disease and normal brain: inverse correlation with A beta levels. *Neurobiol Aging* 2008; 29: 210–21.
63. Nalivaeva NN, Belyaev ND, Lewis DI, Pickles AR, Makova NZ, Bagrova DI, Dubrovskaya NM, Plesneva SA, Zhuravin IA, Turner AJ. Effect of sodium valproate administration on brain neprilysin expression and memory in rats. *J Mol Neurosci* 2012; 46: 569–77.
64. Jeong H, Cohen DE, Cui L, Supinski A, Savas JN, Mazzulli JR, Yates JR 3rd, Bordone L, Guarente L, Krainc D. Sirt1 mediates neuroprotection from mutant huntingtin by activation of the TORC1 and CREB transcriptional pathway. *Nat Med* 2012; 18: 159–65.
65. Julien C, Tremblay C, Emond V, Lebbadi M, Salem N Jr, Bennett DA, Calon F. Sirtuin 1 reduction parallels the accumulation of tau in Alzheimer disease. *J Neuropathol Exp Neurol* 2009; 68: 48–58.
66. Donmez G, Wang D, Cohen DE, Guarente L. SIRT1 suppresses beta-amyloid production by activating the alpha-secretase gene ADAM10. *Cell* 2010; 142: 320–32.
67. Iqbal K, Alonso Adel C, Chen S, Chohan MO, El-Akkad E, Gong CX, Khatoon S, Li B, Liu F, Rahman A, Tanimukai H, Grundke-Iqbal I. Tau pathology in Alzheimer disease and other tauopathies. *Biochim Biophys Acta* 2005; 1739: 198–210.
68. Min SW, Cho SH, Zhou Y, Schroeder S, Haroutunian V, Seeley WW, Huang EJ, Shen Y, Masliah E, Mukherjee C, Meyers D, Cole PA, Ott M, Gan L. Acetylation of tau inhibits its degradation and contributes to tauopathy. *Neuron* 2010; 67: 953–66.
69. Cohen TJ, Guo JL, Hurtado DE, Kwong LK, Mills IP, Trojanowski JQ, Lee VM. The acetylation of tau inhibits its function and promotes pathological tau aggregation. *Nat Commun* 2011; 2: 252.
70. Irwin DJ, Cohen TJ, Grossman M, Arnold SE, Xie SX, Lee VM, Trojanowski JQ. Acetylated tau, a novel pathological signature in Alzheimer's disease and other tauopathies. *Brain* 2012; 135: 807–18.
71. Du G, Liu X, Chen X, Song M, Yan Y, Jiao R, Wang CC. Drosophila histone deacetylase 6 protects dopaminergic neurons against {alpha}-synuclein toxicity by promoting inclusion formation. *Mol Biol Cell* 2010; 21: 2128–37.
72. Kawaguchi Y, Kovacs JJ, McLaurin A, Vance JM, Ito A, Yao TP. The deacetylase HDAC6 regulates aggresome formation and cell viability in response to misfolded protein stress. *Cell* 2003; 115: 727–38.
73. Dompierre JP, Godin JD, Charrin BC, Cordelières FP, King SJ, Humbert S, Saudou F. Histone deacetylase 6 inhibition compensates for the transport deficit in Huntington's disease by increasing tubulin acetylation. *J Neurosci* 2007; 27: 3571–83.

74. Ding H, Dolan PJ, Johnson GV. Histone deacetylase 6 interacts with the microtubule-associated protein tau. *J Neurochem* 2008; 106: 2119–30.
75. Chen S, Owens GC, Makarenkova H, Edelman DB. HDAC6 regulates mitochondrial transport in hippocampal neurons. *PLoS One* 2010; 5: e10848.
76. Cook C, Gendron TF, Scheffel K, Carlomagno Y, Dunmore J, DeTure M, Petrucelli L. Loss of HDAC6, a novel CHIP substrate, alleviates abnormal tau accumulation. *Hum Mol Genet* 2012; 21: 2936–45.
77. Kim C, Choi H, Jung ES, Lee W, Oh S, Jeon NL, Mook-Jung I. HDAC6 inhibitor blocks amyloid beta-induced impairment of mitochondrial transport in hippocampal neurons. *PLoS One* 2012; 7: e42983.
78. Qing H, He G, Ly PT, Fox CJ, Staufenbiel M, Cai F, Zhang Z, Wei S, Sun X, Chen CH, Zhou W, Wang K, Song W. Valproic acid inhibits Abeta production, neuritic plaque formation, and behavioral deficits in Alzheimer's disease mouse models. *J Exp Med* 2008; 205: 2781–9.
79. Ricobaraza A, Cuadrado-Tejedor M, Perez-Mediavilla A, Frechilla D, Del Rio J, Garcia-Osta A. Phenylbutyrate ameliorates cognitive deficit and reduces tau pathology in an Alzheimer's disease mouse model. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2009; 34: 1721–32.
80. Ricobaraza A, Cuadrado-Tejedor M, Marco S, Perez-Otano I, Garcia-Osta A. Phenylbutyrate rescues dendritic spine loss associated with memory deficits in a mouse model of Alzheimer disease. *Hippocampus* 2012; 22: 1040–50.
81. Sung YM, Lee T, Yoon H, Dibattista AM, Song JM, Sohn Y, Moffat EI, Turner RS, Jung M, Kim J, Hoe HS. Mercaptoacetamide-based class II HDAC inhibitor lowers Abeta levels and improves learning and memory in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. *Exp Neurol* 2013; 239: 192–201.
82. Peleg S, Sananbenesi F, Zovoillis A, Burkhardt S, Bahari-Javan S, Agis-Balboa RC, Cota P, Wittnam JL, Gogol-Doering A, Opitz L, Salinas-Riester G, Dettenhofer M, Kang H, Farinelli L, Chen W, Fischer A. Altered histone acetylation is associated with age-dependent memory impairment in mice. *Science* 2010; 328: 753–6.
83. Chen G, Zou X, Watanabe H, van Deursen JM, Shen J. CREB binding protein is required for both short-term and long-term memory formation. *J Neurosci* 2010; 30: 13066–77.
84. Barrett RM, Malvaez M, Kramar E, Matheos DP, Arrizon A, Cabrera SM, Lynch G, Greene RW, Wood MA. Hippocampal focal knockout of CBP affects specific histone modifications, long-term potentiation, and long-term memory. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2011; 36: 1545–56.
85. Barrett RM, Wood MA. Beyond transcription factors: the role of chromatin modifying enzymes in regulating transcription required for memory. *Learn Mem* 2008; 15: 460–7.
86. Valor LM, Pulopulos MM, Jimenez-Minchan M, Olivares R, Lutz B, Barco A. Ablation of CBP in forebrain principal neurons causes modest memory and transcriptional defects and a dramatic reduction of histone acetylation but does not affect cell viability. *J Neurosci* 2011; 31: 1652–63.
87. Oliveira AM, Wood MA, McDonough CB, Abel T. Transgenic mice expressing an inhibitory truncated form of p300 exhibit long-term memory deficits. *Learn Mem* 2007; 14: 564–72.
88. Oliveira AM, Estevez MA, Hawk JD, Grimes S, Brindle PK, Abel T. Subregion-specific p300 conditional knock-out mice exhibit long-term memory impairments. *Learn Mem* 2011; 18: 161–9.
89. Wei W, Coelho CM, Li X, Marek R, Yan S, Anderson S, Meyers D, Mukherjee C, Sbardella G, Castellano S, Milite C, Rotili D, Mai A, Cole PA, Sah P, Kobor MS, Bredy TW. p300/CBP-associated factor selectively regulates the extinction of conditioned fear. *J Neurosci* 2012; 32: 11930–41.
90. Maurice T, Duclot F, Meunier J, Naert G, Givalois L, Meffre J, Célérier A, Jacquet C, Copois V, Mecht N, Ozato K, Gongora C. Altered memory capacities and response to stress in p300/CBP-associated factor (PCAF) histone acetylase knockout mice. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2008; 33: 1584–602.
91. Agis-Balboa RC, Pavelka Z, Kerimoglu C, Fischer A. Loss of HDAC5 impairs memory function: implications for Alzheimer's disease. *J Alzheimers Dis* 2013; 33: 35–44.
92. Radde R, Bolmont T, Kaeser SA, Coomaraswamy J, Lindau D, Stoltze L, Calhoun ME, Jäggi F, Wolburg H, Gengler S, Haass C, Ghetti B, Czech C, Hölscher C, Mathews PM, Jucker M. Abeta42-driven cerebral amyloidosis in transgenic mice reveals early and robust pathology. *EMBO Rep* 2006; 7: 940–6.
93. Kilgore M, Miller CA, Fass DM, Hennig KM, Haggarty SJ, Sweatt JD, Rumbaugh G. Inhibitors of class 1 histone deacetylases reverse contextual memory deficits in a mouse model of Alzheimer's disease. *Neuropsychopharmacology* 2010; 35: 870–80.
94. Gräff J, Rei D, Guan JS, Wang WY, Seo J, Hennig KM, Nieland TJ, Fass DM, Kao PF, Kahn M, Su SC, Samiei A, Joseph N, Haggarty SJ, Delalle I, Tsai LH. An epigenetic blockade of cognitive functions in the neurodegenerating brain. *Nature* 2012; 483: 222–6.
95. Cruz JC, Tseng HC, Goldman JA, Shih H, Tsai LH. Aberrant Cdk5 activation by p25 triggers pathological events leading to neurodegeneration and neurofibrillary tangles. *Neuron* 2003; 40: 471–83.
96. Guan JS, Haggarty SJ, Giacometti E, Dannenberg JH, Joseph N, Gao J, Nieland TJ, Zhou Y, Wang X, Mazitschek R, Bradner JE, DePinho RA, Jaenisch R, Tsai LH. HDAC2 negatively regulates memory formation and synaptic plasticity. *Nature* 2009; 459: 55–60.
97. McQuown SC, Barrett RM, Matheos DP, Post RJ, Rogge GA, Alenghat T, Mullican SE, Jones S, Rusche JR, Lazar MA, Wood MA. HDAC3 is a critical negative regulator of long-term memory formation. *J Neurosci* 2011; 31: 764–74.
98. Li Y, Yuan Z, Liu B, Sailhamer EA, Shultz C, Velmahos GC, Demoya M, Alam HB. Prevention of hypoxia-induced neuronal apoptosis through histone deacetylase inhibition. *J Trauma* 2008; 64: 863–70; discussion 70–1.
99. Jiang H, Poirier MA, Liang Y, Pei Z, Weiskittel CE, Smith WW, DeFranco DB, Ross CA. Depletion of CBP is directly linked with cellular toxicity caused by mutant huntingtin. *Neurobiol Dis* 2006; 23: 543–51.
100. Lonze BE, Riccio A, Cohen S, Ginty DD. Apoptosis, axonal growth defects, and degeneration of peripheral neurons in mice lacking CREB. *Neuron* 2002; 34: 371–85.
101. Kwok RP, Lundblad JR, Chrivia JC, Richards JP, Bächinger HP, Brennan RG, Roberts SG, Green MR, Goodman RH. Nuclear protein CBP is a coactivator for the transcription factor CREB. *Nature* 1994; 370: 223–6.
102. Mantamadiotis T, Lemberger T, Bleckmann SC, Kern H, Kretz O, Martin Villalba A, Tronche F, Kellendonk C, Gau D, Kapfhammer J, Otto C, Schmid W, Schütz G. Disruption of CREB function in brain leads to neurodegeneration. *Nat Genet* 2002; 31: 47–54.

103. Tan YW, Zhang SJ, Hoffmann T, Bading H. Increasing levels of wild-type CREB up-regulates several activity-regulated inhibitor of death (AID) genes and promotes neuronal survival. *BMC Neurosci* 2012; 13: 48.
104. Ryu H, Lee J, Olofsson BA, Mwidau A, Dedeoglu A, Escudero M, Flemington E, Azizkhan-Clifford J, Ferrante RJ, Ratan RR. Histone deacetylase inhibitors prevent oxidative neuronal death independent of expanded polyglutamine repeats via an Sp1-dependent pathway. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 2003; 100: 4281–6.
105. Wu X, Chen PS, Dallas S, Wilson B, Block ML, Wang CC, Kinyamu H, Lu N, Gao X, Leng Y, Chuang DM, Zhang W, Lu RB, Hong JS. Histone deacetylase inhibitors up-regulate astrocyte GDNF and BDNF gene transcription and protect dopaminergic neurons. *Int J Neuropsychopharmacol* 2008; 11: 1123–34.
106. Duclot F, Meffre J, Jacquet C, Gongora C, Maurice T. Mice knock out for the histone acetyltransferase p300/CREB binding protein-associated factor develop a resistance to amyloid toxicity. *Neuroscience* 2010; 167: 850–63.
107. Ma C, D’Mello SR. Neuroprotection by histone deacetylase-7 (HDAC7) occurs by inhibition of c-jun expression through a deacetylase-independent mechanism. *J Biol Chem* 2011; 286: 4819–28.
108. Kim D, Frank CL, Dobbin MM, Tsunemoto RK, Tu W, Peng PL, Guan JS, Lee BH, Moy LY, Giusti P, Broodie N, Mazitschek R, Delalle I, Haggarty SJ, Neve RL, Lu Y, Tsai LH. Dereglulation of HDAC1 by p25/Cdk5 in neurotoxicity. *Neuron* 2008; 60: 803–17.
109. Bardai FH, D’Mello SR. Selective toxicity by HDAC3 in neurons: regulation by Akt and GSK3beta. *J Neurosci* 2011; 31: 1746–51.
110. Bardai FH, Price V, Zaayman M, Wang L, D’Mello SR. Histone deacetylase (HDAC1) is a molecular switch between neuronal survival and death. *J Biol Chem* 2012; 287: 35444–53.
111. Morrison BE, Majdzadeh N, Zhang X, Lyles A, Bassel-Duby R, Olson EN, D’Mello SR. Neuroprotection by histone deacetylase-related protein. *Mol Cell Biol* 2006; 26: 3550–64.
112. Stoltenberg M, Bush AI, Bach G, Smidt K, Larsen A, Rungby J, Lund S, Doering P, Danscher G. Amyloid plaques arise from zinc-enriched cortical layers in APP/PS1 transgenic mice and are paradoxically enlarged with dietary zinc deficiency. *Neuroscience* 2007; 150: 357–69.
113. Miller LM, Wang Q, Telivala TP, Smith RJ, Lanzirotti A, Miklossy J. Synchrotron-based infrared and X-ray imaging shows focalized accumulation of Cu and Zn co-localized with beta-amyloid deposits in Alzheimer’s disease. *J Struct Biol* 2006; 155: 30–7.
114. Perez SE, Berg BM, Moore KA, He B, Counts SE, Fritz JJ, Hu YS, Lazarov O, Lah JJ, Mufson EJ. DHA diet reduces AD pathology in young APPswe/PS1 Delta E9 transgenic mice: possible gender effects. *J Neurosci Res* 2010; 88: 1026–40.
115. Suphioglu C, Sadli N, Coonan D, Kumar L, De Mel D, Lesheim J, Sinclair AJ, Ackland L. Zinc and DHA have opposing effects on the expression levels of histones H3 and H4 in human neuronal cells. *Br J Nutr* 2010; 103: 344–51.
116. Dietz KC, Casaccia P. HDAC inhibitors and neurodegeneration: at the edge between protection and damage. *Pharmacol Res* 2010; 62: 11–7.